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testing the second sub-group. During the next scheduled testing period, the test administrators exchanged groups.

The statistical technique of analysis of variance was used to determine significant differences within and between groups. The Pearson product moment was used to establish the degree of relationship between skill factors and self-concept scores. Fisher's "t" test was used to determine differences between the correlation coefficients established by the Pearson product moment.

Findings of the study were as follows:

1. Neither group of subjects differed significantly in their self-concept responses or their skill performance with either the Negro or Caucasian instructor.

2. Results of the self-concept test did not relate significantly to the performance of the skill tests with either the Caucasian or Negro instructor.

A STUDY OF THE RACIAL IDENTIFICATION OF INSTRUCTORS  
" AS RELATED TO THE SELF-CONCEPT AND SKILL  
PERFORMANCE OF STUDENTS

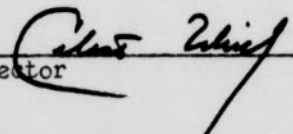
by

Barbara Jane Nole

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Director

APPROVAL SHEET

This thesis has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Greensboro, North Carolina.

Thesis  
Director

Clement W. W. W.

Oral Examination  
Committee Members

John F. Barrett

Norman M. Gue

Wallace Phillips

August 17, 1926  
Date of Examination



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If he is indeed wise he does not bid you enter the house of his wisdom, but rather leads you to the threshold of your own mind.

Gibran

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

In our society each individual is usually regarded as a unique entity. No one else has ever been exactly the same as any other person, or ever will be. "Even though self-images are constantly changing and are never twice exactly the same, one has no difficulty in recognizing himself." (31:214) It follows from this that each individual will therefore have a unique conception of himself, and although this conception remains fairly constant and stable, it may fluctuate to a degree in relation to the various social situations of which the individual may be a part.

One of the primary social institutions with which the individual is in daily contact is the school. Since it is the purpose of education to enable all students to grow to their fullest potential this purpose would be most effectively achieved in a setting congenial to each and every individual. This would enable, theoretically, the students to develop concepts of themselves which would probably be more positive than negative, and which would foster good performance in their learning situations.

"The study of natural reference groups is particularly important in understanding the individual-group-society relationship during adolescence." (16:101) Until recently, peer groups have usually been composed of members of the same race, and in most cases this still is true.

However, as integration becomes more prevalent within the schools, groups are becoming integrated. "We are, then, faced with the reality of a concentrated thrust for cultural self-identity and the recognition of this self-identity in schools." (15:223) Thus, new insights are needed as to how black and white people relate to each other.

In order that optimum learning and growth can take place, it is desirable to develop and maintain good relationships between the teacher and students; relationships which will motivate the student in various school-oriented tasks.

The question which is probably foremost in the minds of many educators concerns the effect racial integration patterns may have on the learning of the student. Will the black student or the white student work up to his fullest potential when taught by a person of another race? Since students tend not to reach achievement goals beyond the expectation level of their teachers, it is important to study the student's perception of the teacher's attitude toward him. The motivational factor with regard to learning is strong in this relationship, and could determine the quality and quantity of work done by the students. The student's concept of himself as he relates to his teacher, and the level of achievement he aspires and work he produces could very well be linked together.

It is reasonable to assume that racial factors have altered the ways in which individuals may perceive themselves in relation to a person of another racial background. How a black person sees himself through the eyes of a white person, and how the white person sees himself in relation to a black person is thought to affect the behavior of each when placed in an integrated situation. Just what behavior results has yet to



be determined. The press for integration of our public schools is more forceful than ever before, with the South perhaps carrying the greatest burden in terms of enforcing desegregation orders. White-black integration patterns need to be understood in terms of behavioral change.

It is the intent of this study to investigate the effects, if any, that the racial identification of a teacher has upon the self-concept and skill performance of college students.

## CHAPTER II

### STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study was undertaken for the purpose of investigating the relationship between the racial identification of a test administrator and the self-concept and skill performance of the students being tested.

Subjects for this study were twenty Caucasian freshman women enrolled in a physical education activity class at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, and fourteen Negro freshman women enrolled in a physical education activity class at the North Carolina Agricultural and Technical State University. The tests were administered during the second semester of the 1969-1970 academic year.

The self-concept Q-sort used by Doudlah (81) and constructed by Rogers (30) was given to determine the self-concept of the students in relation to the test administrator. This was done through an alteration of the directions given for the ideal sort. Rather than instructing the students to sort the statements as they would ideally like to be, they were instructed to sort the statements as they thought the test administrator would want them to be. Thus, the students' perceptions of the administrators' feelings were projected into their responses.

Skill response was measured through performance of the standing broad jump and the shuttle run, both as described by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation Test for Physical Fitness. (3)



## CHAPTER III

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As an heir, even though he were heir to the treasure of all the world, nevertheless does not possess his property before he has come of age, so even the richest personality is nothing before he has chosen himself, and on the other hand even what one might call the poorest personality is everything when he has chosen himself; for the great thing is not to be this or that but to be oneself.

Soren Kierkegaard

As a theoretical construct, the self has ebbed and flowed with the currents of philosophical and psychological pondering since the seventeenth century when Descartes first discussed the 'cognito' or self, as a thinking substance. (14:v)

Most psychologists consider the self as the personality of the individual, a personality which is an organization of values consistent with each other--a personality which maintains its integrity and unity through behavioral efforts. (23:82)

Brownfain has pointed out that, many years ago, James suggested that the individual has many selves. (41:597)

The individual might, for example, conceive of the self that he really believes he is, the self he realistically aspires to be, the self which he believes is perceived by others, the self he hopes he is now, and the self he fears he is now. The self-concept is a configuration of these and of other possible self-definitions, and the stability of the self-concept derives from interrelations among these various ways of defining the self. (41:597)

Symonds (33:70) saw the self as the most real thing in experience, and as the frame of reference with which a person perceives, conceives,

and evaluates the world around him and toward which he reacts. It is "an organized configuration of perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness." (29:136) Rogers (29) described the self as being composed of various elements. Among them are:

the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities; the percepts and concepts of the self in relation to others and to the environment; the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; and goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive or negative valence. (29:136)

Moustakas (26:11) defined the self as the central being of an individual person rather than its definition or description. He explained that to define or verbally analyze the self requires segmenting it into communicable parts, and since the self can only be experienced, any attempt to convey its meaning verbally must be based on function or structure and on language which partially can be understood.

Myers (28:14) has defined the self as "that aspect or part of a person which ponders, decides, and initiates changes in that person's body." He then specified that a person must include more than just a human body, for it does not become a human being until a self has been added.

The self is a composite of thoughts and feelings which constitute a person's awareness of his individual existence, his conception of who and what he is. A person's self is the sum total of all that he can call his. (19:9)

Ittelson (17:9) saw perceiving as an important aspect related to determining the self-concept. He considered it as that part of the process of living by which each person, from his own particular point of view, creates for himself the world in which he has his life's experiences and through which he strives to gain his satisfaction. Our feelings are the

perceptions we have of ourselves, or the situations in which we are involved, and the interrelationship of these two. (8:232)

Combs and Snygg (8) conceived of the individual as having literally thousands of discreet perceptions of self.

This myriad of self perceptions does not exist in the perpetual field as a mere enumeration of ways of seeing one's self. Rather, the concepts of self which each individual possesses is an organization which is the individual's own private conception of himself in all his complexity. This organization of all the ways an individual has of seeing himself we call the phenomenal self. We might also call it the perceived self. By phenomenal self is meant the individual's own unique organization of ways of regarding self; it is the Gestalt of his concepts of self. (8:126)

The self and the self-concept are separate constructs. The self is the person, and includes all dimensions of his existence--his physical qualities, personality traits, and his attitudes. The self-concept is the manner in which a person views his self--the way he perceives his being.

Combs and Snygg considered the self-concept as including only those perceptions about self which seem most vital or important to the individual himself. (8:127)

A theoretical analysis of the concept of the self shows it to be a learned structure, growing mainly from comments made by other people and from inferences drawn by children out of their experiences in home, school, and other social groups. (14:404)

Raimy, who first defined the self-concept in 1943, said of it:

The self-concept is the more or less organized perpetual object resulting from present and past observations . . . (it is) what a person believes about himself. The self-concept is the map which each person consults himself, especially during moments of crisis or choice. (8:127)

The basic premise supported by Lecky (23:82) concerning the self-concept is that the sum of an individual's values are organized into a single system of which the valuation of self is the nucleus. According to Combs (45:328) the self-concept is not what a person says he is, but rather what he feels and believes he is.

Pietrofesa has stated that:

Self-concept, a composite of numerous self-percepts, is an hypothetical construct, encompassing all of the values, attitudes, and beliefs toward one's self in relation to the environment. The self-concept influences and to a great degree determines perception and behavior. (67:37)

Snyder (75:243) has believed that every situation creates for the individual new ways in which he may find himself. In other words, the self-concept is never a rigidly structured representation of the past, but rather is newly designed with every experience which an individual has. Implicit in this explanation is the concept that the modification of the self-concept can occur via the modification of the situation.

Kinch (55) has concluded that although there have been a variety of definitions regarding the meaning of self-concept, the following description would be an accurate summary: "The self-concept is that organization of qualities that the individual attributes to himself." (55:481)

Having established a frame of reference concerning the essence of the self-concept, several psychologists have hypothesized theories with reference to its source, function, direction, and consequences.

Snyder (75), Kinch (55), and Combs and Snygg (8) have offered basic postulates relative to the self-concept theory. Those put forth by Snyder are:

1. The individual's self-concept functions to direct his behavior.
2. The self-concept emerges from the social situations in which the individual is a participant.

3. As the individual participates in situations with varying social expectations his self-concept is modified.

- a. The individual self-concept reflects the actual or perceived expectations of significant others in the situation.

- b. Without the support of the group's expectations the self-concept is threatened, and will, with high probability, be modified. (75:244)

Kinch's first two postulates are basically the same as those described by Snyder. His third describes an additional interpretation. He stated that "the individual's perception of the response of others toward him reflects the actual responses of others toward him." (55:482)

Combs and Snygg (8:124-125) viewed the concepts held by individuals as varying in the following two aspects:

1. Some self perceptions appear to be much more central, or basically part of us, than others.

2. Concepts of the self vary in sharpness and clarity.

Dai (21) has proposed a theory in relation to the acquisition and maintenance of the self and its conception.

An individual is born with only biological needs, but acquires a self in the course of maturation and socialization. But with the growth of the self, the needs for security in self-other or interpersonal relations become as important as, and very often more than, the needs for biologic satisfaction. In fact, the self system tends to exert an over-all control over all the needs of the individual, biologic or otherwise, any serious disturbance of which may result in varying degrees of anxiety. (21:547)



Jersild (19:18) credited the imagination as having an important bearing on the development of the self. He saw the capacity of the imagination as being used to serve highly productive and creative purposes. However, he did point out that in an unhealthy setting the imagination may be pressed into service to help in the building of a distorted or false image or version of the self.

Of the many possible variables which might affect an individual's self-concept, the most frequently referred to is the influence of the social environment. "Man learns that his self is not something he alone determines; environmental forces which he cannot always control change and mold his being." (81:1) Lecky (23:84) proposed that we should think of the individual as a unified system with two sets of problems. One of the problems would concern maintaining harmony with the environment, especially the social environment, in the midst of which an individual lives; and the second would be the maintenance of inner harmony within himself.

The individual sees the world from his own viewpoint, with himself as the center. Any value entering the system which is inconsistent with the individual's valuation of himself cannot be assimilated; it meets with resistance and is likely, unless a general reorganization occurs, to be rejected. This resistance is a natural phenomenon; it is essential for the maintenance of individuality. (23:82)

The actions of the individual will take on the characteristics of his environment. He is seen in action with his family, the socio-educational groups to which he belongs, and the individuals which make up these groups. (81:1) In other words, the conception an individual forms of himself usually has a social reference. This social reference

generally takes the form of some kind of relation between the self and others. (21:547)

The term "significant other" was coined by Sullivan "to refer to those others whose evaluation of his behavior and attitudes the individual held in high esteem." (47:298)

Snyder has stated:

If the self-concept consists of the "organization" of qualities that the individual attributes to himself, there will certainly be continuity in behavior patterns. This continuity will be based upon the expectations that significant other people have of him as he interacts in social situations from one time to another. (75:243)

Rogers (29), Sheerer (73), and McIntyre (58) have all agreed that an individual's acceptance of himself is positively and significantly correlated with his acceptance of others.

The personality develops as a result of actual contacts with the world, and incorporates into itself the meanings derived from external contacts. Essentially, it is the organization of experience into an integrated whole." (23:85)

Therefore, it can be seen that the nature of the self system an individual acquires depends largely on the kind of personalities with which he associates, the cultural patterns of his activities, the view which the significant others have of him, and the ways in which the socialized program is carried out.

Kinch (55:481) stated his interpretation of the concept in the following way: "The individual's conception of himself emerges from social interaction and, in turn, guides or influences the behavior of that individual." In interpretation of Brooks (40), Pietrofesa summarizes that "the child appears upon the human scene without self; the self is a

social product conceived and born in the process of social interaction."  
(67:37)

Brandt (39) and Snyder (75) both concur with regard to the importance of social influence. Brandt, however, added the physical dimension and saw the self emerging as the result of physiological and sociological interaction (39:29), while Snyder called the influence a "blending of the individual's self-concept and the social situation." (75:243)

Since the self is achieved through social contact, it has to be understood in terms of others. Self and other is not a duality, because they go together that separation is quite impossible.  
(1:10)

Combs and Snygg (8) believed that perception of the difference between the self and the demands of a situation was dependent on the ability to see oneself as others see him. However, they point out that people behave according to the facts as they see them, not as others see them. "What governs behavior from the point of view of the individual himself are his unique perceptions of himself and the world in which he lives, the meanings things have for him." (8:17) Symonds charged these authors with putting an emphasis on "a conscious level without apparently recognizing that individuals frequently rationalize in order to defend themselves against becoming aware of unconscious motives which they are not able to face directly." (33:117) Brown (4), whose theory lends support to Symonds, explained the process leading to this rationalization. "Repression of impulses leads to projection which functions as rationalization for an expression." (4:502) In this situation it would seem that the repressed impulses are the traits upon which "significant others" have cast dispersions, and the projections would be the individual's own



unacceptable impulses. Symonds has not contradicted Snygg and Combs, but rather, has gone one step further with the analyzation of the socialization process.

Rose (72:478) has agreed with Mead (25) that a person does get his perspectives from others. However, Rose believed that his perspective was not a presentation of the attitudes of others toward the self, but rather a normatively-regulated offering to the person of an approving attitude toward himself. (72:478)

"If the child already is suspicious and defensive in his attitude toward others, he can through his imagination elaborate little criticisms into serious insults and signs of hatred." (19:18-19)

The individual experiences himself as much, not directly, but only indirectly, from the particular standpoints of other individual members of the same social group, or from the generalized standpoint of the social group as a whole to which he belongs. For he enters his own experience as a self or individual, not directly or immediately, but by becoming a subject to himself, but only insofar as he first becomes an object to himself just as other individuals are objects to him or in his experience; and he becomes an object to himself only by taking the attitudes of other individuals toward himself within a social environment or context of experience and behavior in which both he and they are involved. (25:138)

People develop feelings that they are liked, wanted, acceptable, and able from having been liked, wanted, accepted and from having been successful. One learns that he is these things, not from being told so, but only through the experience of being treated as though he were so. (1:53)

In effect, the individual has adapted himself to the expectations of others through previous situations similar in nature. (75:243)

Coleman (6) has traced the interaction between self and the environment back to prenatal development at which time there is a symbiotic relation between the mother and the child in the womb. Following birth,

he saw the relationship continue with the child and his social and cultural environment, and concluded that behavioral growth and development of the self accompanied with a paralleling growth and development of independence is always in relation with others. (6:5) Therefore, Coleman saw the self as developing according to the prevalent cultural patterns, or any particular segment thereof. (6:6)

The factors influencing a person's concept of his self are important to the individual's evaluation of his self in varying situations.

Combs and Snygg have noted that the ability to see one's self as others see it, is necessary before the individual is able to differentiate between the self required by a particular situation and the phenomenal self. (8:158)

Many self-concept theorists place a heavy weight upon the effect a teacher has on an individual's perception of his self. Davidson (14:425) has stated that one of the most important aspects influencing a child's self is his perception of his teacher's feelings toward him. She explains:

In an investigation of this interaction, we not only may gain insight into the question of what qualities make for an effective teacher, but also an understanding of how the child's perception of his teacher's feelings, irrespective of its accuracy relates to his self-concept, school achievement, and classroom behavior. (14:425)

Jersild (19), Davidson (14), and Staines (14) have all noted the importance of the teacher's relationship to an individual upon the person's concept of himself. Jersild felt that:

The learner's life at school and his relationships with his instructors and his peers have a profound psychological impact on

his way of life. The school is second only to the home as a place where the social forces which influence a child's attitudes toward himself and others are concentrated. (19:7)

Staines and Davidson also agree that the teachers are second only to parents in influencing a child's self-concept.

As the result of an investigation to determine the relationship between a child's perception of his teacher's feelings toward him, and the variables of self-perception, academic achievement, and classroom behavior, Davidson (14:437) found that "the more positive the children's perception of their teachers' feelings, the better was their academic achievement, and the more desirable their classroom behavior as rated by the teachers." In his study, Davidson also found that:

The children's perception of their teachers' feelings toward them correlated positively and significantly with self-perception. The child with the more favorable self-image was the one who more likely than not perceived his teacher's feelings toward him more favorable. (14:437)

Thus, it is evident that a positive correlation does exist between the children's perception of their teachers' feelings toward them, the children's perception of themselves, and academic achievement.

Jersild (19) saw the teacher as a mediator of values from the culture, and as "an important factor in the interpersonal field of forces which influence the student's developing self." (19:94)

Combs and Snygg (8:157) have pointed out that an individual's own basic need necessitates change in his concepts of self. One must be able to adapt to the changing world around him if he is to adequately live in it. If an individual's self remained static in a moving world, he would soon be lost in his environment. "An adequate self must be stable but not rigid; it must be changing but not fluctuating." (8:157)

Perkins (64:224) has defined change in self-concept as "change in congruency of the child's self-concept and his ideal-self occurring during a specified period of time." He felt that as an individual's self-concept and ideal-self became more congruent, it was indicative of better adjustment, thereby facilitating his self-development.

Combs and Snygg (8), Davidson (14), and Symonds (33) concur that feelings concerning the self are developed early in life, and are modified as the child is subjected to new experiences. Since early experiences limit the possibilities of later ones, they are regarded as highly important in determining an individual's self-concept. Therefore, it can be concluded that the conceptions of self formulated earliest in life will tend to form the nucleus of the personality, thus making them more difficult to reach and to change.

Symonds (33:117) saw the change in the self depending on an "individual's capacity to perceive a difference between his concept of himself and the demands of the situation, particularly the expectations of those about him as they respond to his behavior."

Combs and Snygg (8:163) have listed three factors which they have seen as determinants as to whether a change actually will occur in the perceived self.

1. The place of the new concept in the individual's present self-organization.
2. The relation of the new concept to the person's basic need.
3. The clarity of the experience of the new perception.

The need of a positive concept of the self is an understandable want in light of an individual's mental and psychological health.

However, according to Symonds (33:104-105) it is difficult to understand why an individual would persist in clinging to a negative self-concept. Thinking of one's self as being inadequate, ineffective, inept or stupid is indicative of a masochistic tendency. Thus, an individual is afraid to consider himself in a positive view for fear that he might not live up to that expectation in his eyes and in the eyes of others, thus being shamed in his own sight.

It has already been mentioned that the most unchanging factor in an individual's experience is himself and the interpretation of his own meaning. (23:86) The traits of his personality and his status in society represent the nucleus of the personality. Therefore, according to Rogers:

It would appear that when all of the ways in which the individual perceives himself--all perceptions of the qualities, abilities, impulses, and attitudes of the person, and all perceptions of himself in relation to others--are accepted into the organized conscious concept of the self, feelings of comfort and freedom from tension which are experienced as psychological adjustment. (71:364)

As Jersild has so aptly stated:

Nearly everything in the curriculum is charged with psychological meaning when viewed from the standpoint of what it might do to help learners find themselves, realize their potentialities, use their resources in productive ways, and enter into relationships which have a bearing on their ideas and attitudes toward themselves. (19:103)

In the schools positive and negative values of the self-concept can be developed. Perkins has cited ways in which the knowledge and understanding of the self-concept can be applied in our educational institutions. They are:

1. As a psychological construct which enables teachers, counselors, parents and others to achieve with training deeper understandings



and insights into the behavior and development of children, and

2. As a vital and important aspect of learning and development which the school through its educational processes seeks to promote and foster in every child. (65:203)

Research studies have been conducted involving the measurement of self-concept through a variety of techniques. These investigations have sought to determine the stability of the self-concept, and the relationship between an individual's concept of his self and his attitudes toward others, his personal adjustment and his motor ability.

Engel (50) and Brownfain (41) were concerned with self-concept stability. Engel, concentrating his efforts on children in grades eight and ten, tested one hundred and seventy-two public school students to determine stability over a two year period. His instrument was a Q-sort containing one hundred items. These items were to be sorted into eleven categories ranging from "most like me" to "least like me." The reliability of this Q-sort was .68. Engel concluded that "relative stability of self-concept was demonstrated by an overall item by item correlation of .53 between Q-sorts in 1954 and 1956." (50:211) He also noted that subjects who had a negative self-concept during the first test administration tended to be less stable than subjects having a positive self-concept.

Brownfain (41) conducted his study on sixty-two college men in an effort to determine the relationship between self-concept stability and adjustment. He used a Self-Rating Inventory containing seventy-five items. Each subject rated his self four successive times in four

different frames of judgment, each designed to yield a different type of self-concept. The four selves he rated were: (1) the private self: the most accurate estimate of himself as he believed it to be, (2) the positive self: the self as he really hoped it was, (3) the negative self: the self he feared he was, and (4) the social self: the way he believed other people in the group saw him. (41:908) Brownfain concluded on the basis of his findings that subjects with stable self-concepts are better adjusted than those with unstable self-concepts.

Sheerer (73), Phillips (66), McIntyre (58), Stock (77), and Jervis (54) investigated the self-concept in relation to others. Sheerer used subjects from ten counseling cases in order to determine a relationship between acceptance of and respect for self and acceptance of and respect for others. Judges rated, on a five point scale, fifty-one statements revealing self-evaluation and fifty statements revealing evaluative attitudes toward others, all statements being extracted from recorded client statements. The following findings were evidenced:

1. One's attitudes toward others are related, in a decidedly significant degree, to the attitudes one holds toward one's self.
2. The individual's evaluation of himself and worth as a person, can be significantly altered by the therapeutic process initiated by client centered therapy.
3. The individual's evaluation of others . . . is significantly related to his attitude toward himself. (73:174-175)

Adapting Sheerer's (73) attitude statements, Phillips (66) constructed a questionnaire consisting of twenty-five self-attitude

statements and twenty-five other-attitude statements. Hypothesizing that self-others attitudes are a facet of personality structure and that such attitudes are related to each other to a statistically reliable extent, Phillips administered his questionnaire to forty-eight college students enrolled in general psychology classes, seventy-seven college freshmen and sophomores, and eighty-six high school students. The test-retest correlation was  $+.84$  for the three groups on the self-attitude statements. Phillips concluded that self-others attitudes, when measured in terms of an objective multiple-choice questionnaire, show a substantial relationship far exceeding that expected by chance.

McIntyre (58) investigated the relationship proposed by Rogers (29) that ". . . the person who accepts himself will, because of this self-acceptance, have better interpersonal relations with others." (29:520) McIntyre used the data obtained from two hundred and twenty-four college men in response to a sociometric questionnaire. The questionnaire required the men to answer two questions with the names of up to eight men. The questions asked with whom they would most like to spend an evening or recreation, and with whom they would most like to room if they had a choice. The test-retest coefficient of reliability for the sociometric questionnaire was  $+.65$ . The results obtained indicated that the questionnaire had a fairly good reliability and good face validity. The results in regards to Rogers' hypothesis were ambiguous in that "the results might be attributed at least as easily to the method of the experiment as to the incorrectness of the hypothesis." (58:625)



Stock (77) also researched the relationship between self and others. She divided the general feelings toward self and others into ten categories, and applied the responses of her clients to her classification. Stock noted that a definite relationship does exist between the way in which an individual feels about himself and the way he feels about others. A person holding negative feelings about himself will tend to hold negative feelings about others, and as these feelings change to objective or positive, his feelings about others also change in the same direction. Stock's conclusions support those held by Sheerer.

Jervis (54) constructed a Self Description Inventory through which the self-concept is measured by the discrepancy occurring between scores obtained for the "self" and the "ideal-self." The inventory consisted of sixty items, which the eight hundred and fifty college students used as subjects, rated on a five point scale. A small discrepancy indicated a positive self-concept.

Results disclosed that the positive self-concept group contained individuals with low self and low ideal-self scores as well as individuals with high self and high ideal-self scores.  
(54:372)

In relating self-concept to personal adjustment Chodorkoff (43) hypothesized that "the greater the correspondence between the perceived and ideal self, the more adequate the individual's personal adjustment." (43:268) To test his hypothesis, Chodorkoff used thirty college males enrolled in an introductory psychology course. The subjects were asked to fill out a Biographical Inventory, and were administered the Rorschach test and the Thematic Apperception Test. One week later they were given a Q-sort of one hundred and twenty-five short self-descriptive statements

and instructed to sort the statements so that they best described themselves (perceived self). One or two days later each subject sorted the same statements, this time describing the person he would like to be (ideal-self). Results of the experiment indicated that as adequacy of adjustment decreased, the correspondence between the perceived-self and the ideal-self also decreased until a point was reached where from then on adequacy of adjustment increased as correspondence scores decreased. However, it was noted that the level of adequacy of adjustment did not rise to the level found for the subjects with high correspondence scores.

Another instrument used for the evaluation of a person's self-concept was developed by Bugental and Zelen, and is referred to as "The W-A-Y Technique." This method requires the subject to answer the question "Who are you?" with three answers. This "allows the client to structure his responses along lines most expressive of his own needs and most meaningfully related to his current situation." (42:483) Bugental and Zelen stated that the validity of this technique "lies in delineation of the object of investigation, the expressed self-perception of the client." (42:484)

Brandt (39), Holt (12), and Shen (32) have all conducted similar studies regarding the validity and accuracy of the self-concept. The three authors have agreed in their conclusions that there is a tendency to overestimate or underestimate the self, and accuracy seems to be more dependent on self-structure rather than the perceived trait. In addition, Brandt has noted that self-accuracy increases with age and is a developmental thing. Shen found that there was a tendency to rank the self in a group less accurately than one's friends ranked the subject.

Hill (53:395) has found, in support of Brandt, that attitudes tend to vary significantly in relation to chronological age. He also concluded in his research that the organized study of social class structure has little, if any, influence upon the attitudes an individual has concerning his self.

Doudlah (81) has investigated the relationship between the self-concept, body-image and movement-concept of college freshmen women with low and average motor ability. The motor ability rating of the subjects was based upon their scores obtained on the Scott Motor Ability test. Their self-concept, body-image and movement-concept were measured with three Q-sort tests from which the correlation coefficient between the self-sort and ideal-sort was the score for each test. Doudlah found a relationship between self-concept:body-image and body-image:movement-concept. She interpreted this as indicating that the subjects were able to perceive themselves as a self with a body and with a body that moves. Also, statistical inference supported the belief that subjects with low motor ability perceive the sphere of self-concept as being the one in which they come closest to their ideal-self.

Combs and Snygg (8:327) in an investigation into the relationship of self-concept and peer group selection, identified four bases for selection. The first was the tendency of individuals to prefer companionship with people seeking need satisfaction in ways similar to their own. Secondly, "persons banded together in groups for the mutual satisfaction of need, find their group purposes most effectively advanced by the development of group organization." Thirdly, if an individual does not elicit approval or a satisfied need from a group he will withdraw from it; and

fourthly, once an individual has assumed identification with a group, he will defend and conform to the particular standards and behaviors of that group.

Quarantelli and Cooper (69) found through their research that the more important influence in the formation of self-conception is the perceived rather than the actual response of others. They concluded further that:

Not only is self-definition chiefly derived from the perceived rather than the actual response of others, but that it is also a reflection of the perceived response of the generalized other.  
(69:296)

Maehr, Mensing, and Nafzger (57) conducted a study of self-concept using as subjects thirty-one males between the ages of fourteen and sixteen. The subjects were given thirty items and asked to rate themselves, using each item, on a nine point scale ranging from "extremely adequate" to "extremely inadequate." The participants were then subjected to approval or disapproval by an individual who they had been told was an "expert," and were subsequently asked to repeat the test. The following conclusions were drawn:

1. If a significant other reacts approvingly toward some attribute of the subject, then the subject's concept of that attribute will increase; conversely, if a significant other reacts disapprovingly toward some attribute of the subject, then the subject's concept of that attribute will decrease.

2. There will be a gradient of effect from specifically approved or disapproved attributes to "related" and "unrelated" attributes.

3. No conclusion could be derived concerning the amounts of absolute change produced by approval and disapproval treatments. (57:356)

In 1961 Sherwood (74) conducted a survey during the summer session of the National Training Laboratories in Human Relations. Previous research had indicated that due to the processes involved during the session, changes in self-concept were likely, and accuracy and truthfulness in reporting self-perceptions could be expected. The results obtained from a group of adults between the ages of twenty-three and sixty indicated that as subjective public identity and public evaluation change, there is a tendency for self-identity and self-evaluation to also change in the same direction.

It has been quite evident from most of the literature reviewed concerning self-concept that the social conditions surrounding an individual do indeed influence the conception that he develops of himself. For the Negro individual this can propose an often dim picture. When he is born, it is into a white world where his ancestors were slaves and where he is still considered, by many, as being inferior. The average Negro child is categorized as "disadvantaged" and is usually without hope of ever erasing that stigma.

Since "the individual's behavior is largely determined by his self-concept, which emerges from the social situations in which the individual practices," (75:243) this picture leads us to ponder the ways in which this position in life will affect the black child's self-concept and his achievement. How does the Negro child view himself in terms of his white neighbor? Richard Wright, a prominent southern Negro writer, expressed his feelings in this way.



Not only had the southern whites not known me, but, more important still, as I had lived in the South I had not the chance to learn who I was. The pressure of southern living kept me from being the kind of person that I might have been. I had been what my surroundings had demanded, what my family--conforming to the dictates of the whites above them--had exacted of me, and what the whites had said that I must be. Never being fully able to be myself, I had slowly learned that the South could recognize but a part of a man, could accept but a fragment of his personality, and all the rest--the best and deepest things of heart and mind--were tossed away in blind ignorance and hate. (35:81-82)

"Everywhere we see the damage done to the Negro self-concept because he lives in a world in which 'white is right; black is bad.'" (52:62) It has been pointed out by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (1:169) that segregation is a destructive force in the fostering of identification. "When children are segregated by race, religion, sex, intellectual ability, socioeconomic status, or even age, they are deprived of the opportunity of learning to identify with all of mankind." (1:169) Combs (45:317) saw the adequate personalities not finding themselves limited to feeling themselves identified only with the white ones, or the black ones, or the Jews, or the Protestants, or the Catholics, or the Democrats, or the Republicans, but seem able to respect and understand all kinds, sizes and varieties of fellow human beings.

Poussaint and Atkinson (68) have pointed out that "the generalized other whose attitudes the black child assumes and the looking-glass into which he gazes both reflect the same judgment: he is inferior because he is black." (68:242) Thus, the generalized other which shapes, defines, and passes judgment is racist or warped by racists. (68:242) Either poses the problem we face as a "concentrated thrust" for the recognition of cultural self-identity within our schools. (51:223)

Paschal and Williams (63:34) point out that students rarely exceed the expectation level of their teachers. Therefore, for the deprived child it becomes a devastating experience to have a teacher with low expectation levels for his students.

In their work with comparisons of the Caucasian and Negro races, Dreger and Miller (48) have generalized that there are similarities in the value systems of the two races.

Differences in self-concepts are marked, however, in that being a white person in a white society appears to mean little in respect to the development of self-concepts, whereas being a Negro in a white society seems to be one of the most important factors in such development. (48:386)

When compared with the Caucasian the Negro is much less positive towards his own race. (48:382)

Radke and Sutherland (70) conducted an investigation in a predominantly Negro school, in which the entire school population of grades two through six was tested in the area of self-concept. Forty-eight of the subjects were Caucasian and four hundred and seventy-five were Negro. The children were asked to respond to three different test situations. The first was the Projective Picture which involved the assignment of behavioral characteristics to Negro and Caucasian children in a series of photographs. The next situation involved the use of the same pictures. This time, however, sociometric data were collected on friendships and rejections of the pictures. Radke and Sutherland called this the Picture Sociometric Test. The final situation was used to collect data on friendships and rejections of children in the school and neighborhood. As the result of this study Radke and Sutherland found that Negro children tend to have more negative self-concepts than do Caucasian children. (70:170)

In 1966 James S. Coleman (6) compiled a report for the United States government on the "Equality of Educational Opportunity." His surveys yielded the following statistical facts:

1. For the nation as a whole, the average Negro elementary pupil attends a school in which sixty-five percent of the teachers are Negro.

2. The average white elementary pupil attends a school in which ninety-seven percent of the teachers are white.

3. White teachers are more predominant at the secondary level where the corresponding figures are fifty-nine and ninety-seven percent.

4. The racial matching of teachers is most pronounced in the South, where by tradition it has been complete.

5. On a nationwide basis, in cases where the races of pupils and teachers are not matched, the trend is all in one direction: white teachers teach Negro children but Negro teachers seldom teach white children; just as in the schools, integration consists primarily of a minority of Negro pupils in predominantly white schools but almost never a few whites in largely Negro schools. (6:3)

6. Those Negro pupils who first entered integrated schools in the early grades record consistently higher scores than the other groups, although the differences are again small. (6:29)

In his investigation Coleman administered two sets of questions to ninth and twelfth grade students. The first test was devised to obtain an indication of the child's self-concept. The questions asked were:

1. How bright do you think you are in comparison with the other students in your grade?



2. Agree or disagree: I sometimes feel that I just can't learn.

3. Agree or disagree: I would do better in schoolwork if teachers didn't go so fast.

Generally speaking the answers given to the questions did not indicate differences between Negroes and Caucasians.

The second factor to be measured was the individual's sense of control over his environment. Coleman felt that if a child thought it was beyond his ability to alter or change his environment, he would dismiss all attempts to affect it as fruitless and would cease trying. This attitude toward the environment may be the product of his past experiences and the individual may be unconscious of it. Maslow (14) felt that it could be expected on "a priori" grounds alone, that unconscious motivation would be more important than the conscious motivation.

The particular relevance of this factor for groups that have been the subject of discrimination is that they have objectively had much less control of their environment than have members of the majority groups. This has been particularly true for Negroes. (6:288)

Coleman used three items from his questionnaire to measure the child's sense of control of his environment.

1. Agree or disagree: Good luck is more important than hard work for success.

2. Agree or disagree: Everytime I try to get ahead, something or somebody stops me.

3. Agree or disagree: People like me don't have much of a chance to be successful in life. (6:288)

An answer of "agree" to any three of the questions indicated a degree of low environmental control. In response to all three statements, Negroes and children of other minority groups showed a much lower sense of control of their environment than did the Caucasian children. (6:289)

For children from advantaged groups, achievement or lack of it appears closely related to their self-concept: what they believe about themselves. For children from disadvantaged groups, achievement or lack of achievement appears closely related to what they believe about their environment: whether they believe the environment will respond to reasonable efforts, or whether they believe it is instead merely random or immovable. (6:320-321)

Coleman has indicated that advantaged children assume that the environment will respond if they are able enough to affect it. The disadvantaged children do not reach this conclusion, but rather, will often assume that nothing they do will affect their environment. They see their environment as giving benefits or withholding them but not as a result of their own actions. (6:321) Coleman did note one variable which seemed to be consistently related to the child's self-concept and control of environment. For both Negroes and Caucasians, as the proportion of white students in the school increases, the child's sense of control of environment increases, and his self-concept decreases. (6:323)

As the result of an investigation of university students, Coleman concluded that colleges and universities are not congenial locations for Negroes. (6:489) The Negro students he interviewed on campuses indicated that they did not feel "comfortable" within the university system. Among their reasons for this discomfort was the small number of Negroes enrolled in their university, and belief that administrators and faculty were prejudiced against the Negro students. (6:489)

Poussaint and Atkinson (68) have stated implications which must be considered in order for the motivation and productive behavior of Negro students to increase in a positive direction.

First, with respect to self-concept, all institutional segments of society must begin to function in a non-racist manner. Second, the relationship between self-concept and achievement is not clear cut, but some evidence suggests that it is a weaker motivator of behavior than the motive to self-assertion and aggression. Third, most of the data indicate that Negro youth and their parents have high occupational aspirations, which are manifested in achievement levels. (68)

Williams and Byars (80:123) have pointed out that the success which Negroes have experienced at all levels of competition, plus their productivity for physical activities have enhanced the appraisal of physical self. This in turn, has perhaps fostered a more positive self-concept. However, to say that this has had a profound effect on the Negro race would be an exaggeration. The athletically successful Negroes do not comprise the majority of their race. They are only a small segment.

It is evident from the literature reviewed that the self-concept must be viewed in the total realm of psychological growth. The bulk of research acknowledges the role of the environment in the development of self-concept. The more changeable the environment, the more necessary it becomes to develop an adaptable personality construct which allows the self-concept to adjust to one's limitations in regards to life and society's demands.

"Significant others" which comprise part of man's environment probably have the most influence on an individual's conception of his self.

The most significant people would most likely be an individual's parents. Second only to the family unit is the teacher with whom the student identifies.

The self-concept of both Negro and Caucasian students implies considerations for physical education programs. The psychological aspects of physical education are evident when learners begin to find themselves, realize their potentialities and enter into relationships which have a bearing on their ideas and attitudes toward themselves.

With racial integration now being enforced, many schools previously considered all-white will be acquiring new black students. For many of these students it will be the first time they have had to mix with the white race and have a white teacher. Many white students will be thrust into predominantly black schools, feeling out of place and awkward. It is not yet known just how the self-concepts of these students will be affected. How will the white students and black students view themselves in terms of their new environment and in terms of their teacher who might well be of another race?

It is the intent of this study to determine what effect, if any, the race of the teacher has upon the self-concept, as measured by the Q-sort devised by Rogers (30) and used by Doudlah (81), and skill performance, as measured by the standing broad jump and the shuttle run as described in the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation Test for Physical Fitness. (3)

## CHAPTER IV

### PROCEDURE

This study endeavored to ascertain whether there was any possible relationship between the students' self-concept and skill performance and the race identification of the test administrator.

A total of thirty-four college freshmen participated in this study; twenty Caucasian women at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, and fourteen Negro women at the North Carolina Agricultural and Technical State University. The participating subjects did not know the purpose of the study.

The testers were one Caucasian female (the author) and one Negro female, both graduate students at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro. The testers were not familiar with the subjects.

An effort was made to obtain subjects from each university who would normally meet their scheduled physical education class at identical times in each institution. The class used at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro met on Tuesdays and Thursdays, and the class at the North Carolina Agricultural and Technical State University met on Wednesdays and Fridays, both schools having the same meeting time from 1:00 P. M. to 2:00 P. M. A copy of the testing schedule appears in the Appendix.

Both testers administered the self-concept test, the standing broad jump, and the shuttle run to both groups of subjects. To eliminate



any influence of practice on the test results, both the Negro and Caucasian groups were divided into two sub-groups. Thus, when the Caucasian tester was administering the tests to one half of the group, the Negro administrator was testing the second sub-group. During the next scheduled testing period, the test administrators exchanged groups.

The Q-sort technique, as described by Stephenson (32), was used to determine the self-concept of the students. This technique allows the subjects to interpret the statements without outside influence. No value judgment is placed on the students' choices. The subjects are forced to arrange the statements in a normal curve, therefore enabling the scorer to easily obtain a clear correlation between the real-self and ideal-self. The seventy-five self-concept statements used by Doudlah (81) and devised by Rogers (30) were utilized for the Q-sorting. A copy of the statements appears in the Appendix.

The common procedure for administering the ideal-sort is to have the students sort the statements as they would ideally like to be. However, in order to determine the effect of the teacher upon the individual's self-concept, the students were instructed to complete the ideal-sort as they believe the test administrator would ideally want them to be.

The Q-sort methodology involves the distribution of seventy-five statements into nine columns, each with a specific number of statements under it, thus representing a normal distribution. A cardboard strip with the column numbers and number of statements to be used printed on it was used as a guide for the students. The nine-point scale ranges from

"least like" on the left side to "most like" on the right side. The distribution of statements on the scale is illustrated in the following diagram.

LEAST LIKE					MOST LIKE				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	
(2)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	(2)	
	(5)	.	.	.	.	.	(5)		
		(9)	.	.	.	(9)			
			(13)	.	(13)				
(number of statements)					(17)				

As can be seen by the above illustration the subject was required to place the two statements which she thought were least like her in column one, and in column nine, the two statements most like her. The remaining seventy-one statements were distributed in the same manner.

During each administration of the test, the subjects were required to complete the sorting process twice. The first time the statements were to be distributed as the subject saw herself at that exact moment in time. This was called the self-sort. The second sorting required the subject to distribute the statements according to how she perceived the test administrator as wanting her to be. This was called the ideal-sort. The same sorting procedures were applicable to both distributions.

The skill tests used in this study were the standing broad jump and the shuttle run. These tests were selected from a battery of tests

for physical fitness developed by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.

The administration of the tests was done in the subjects' own university gymnasium. Since the study required two testing areas to be used simultaneously, one for the group with the Caucasian tester and one for the group with the Negro tester, the groups were met at opposite ends of the gymnasium in diagonal corners. The subjects were facing only their test administrator.

Materials for the self-concept test included two answer sheets, a white one for the self-sort and a yellow one for the ideal-sort, a packet of seventy-five statements, one numbered cardboard strip utilized as a column heading, and pencils. The instruction sheet for the self-concept test can be found in the Appendix. Statements were typed, mimeographed, and cut into rectangles approximately one and one half inches by two and one half inches. Each statement was numbered at the top to correspond with the master sheet of statements.

The standing broad jump required the use of a beat board and a gymnastics floor mat marked off in inches. The shuttle run required lines to be marked off on the gymnasium floor at the appropriate measurements, and two erasers and one stop watch were needed for each group.

The scoring of the self-concept Q-sort necessitates the construction of a nomograph, as described by Cohen. (44) The nomograph constructed by Doudlah (81), based on the nine point scale of seventy-five statements was used. A copy of the nomograph appears in the Appendix.

The following procedure was used to determine the correlation coefficient for each subject. The difference between the values of the columns for the self-sort and ideal-sort were found for each statement and then squared. The squared differences were then tallied to obtain the sum of  $D^2$ . For any sum of  $D^2$  from 0 to 511 the nomograph was entered from the left side at the corresponding level for  $D^2$ . By proceeding from the left side across to the diagonal line and then down, the value of  $r$  was read along the bottom line. These correlation coefficients were positive. For any sum of  $D^2$  from 511 to 1022 the nomograph was entered from the right side. By proceeding from the right across to the diagonal line and then up, the value of  $r$  was read from the top line. These correlation coefficients for all subjects can be found in the Appendix.

The scores for the standing broad jump were recorded to the nearest inch. For the shuttle run, the scores were recorded to the nearest tenth of a second. The skill performance raw scores for all subjects can be found in the Appendix.

## CHAPTER V

## ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This study was conducted to determine if an influential relationship might exist between the racial identity of a teacher and the self-concept and skill performance of the students.

The subjects participating in this study were twenty Caucasian freshman women enrolled in a physical education activity class at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, and fourteen Negro freshman women enrolled in a physical education activity class at the North Carolina Agricultural and Technical State University.

The test constructed by Rogers (30) and used by Doudlah (81), based on Q-sort methodology, was utilized as the self-concept determinant. The instructions for the ideal-sort were given so that the students' responses would be indicative of how they perceived the test administrator would ideally want them to be, rather than how they themselves would ideally like to be. This procedure was utilized so as to make it possible to see if the race of the teacher had any influence upon the results obtained. The correlation of coefficients between the self-sort and the projected ideal-sort for each test administration were determined by the use of a nomograph. The coefficients of correlation for all subjects can be found in the Appendix.



The tools employed for the measurement of skill performance were the standing broad jump and the shuttle run, both selected from the battery of physical fitness tests developed by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. The skill performance scores for all subjects can be found in the Appendix.

Statistical data was organized into three groups: self-concept correlation coefficients, standing broad jump scores, and shuttle run scores.

Null hypotheses were formulated with regard to the relationships between groups and within groups for the variables being measured. A significant difference at the five percent level of confidence was set as an acceptable standard at which to find the hypotheses untenable.

The statistical technique of analysis of variance was used to investigate any differences between or within scores on the items used in the following hypotheses regarding the relationship between the racial identification of the test administrator and the self-concept correlation coefficients.

1. There is no significant difference between self-concept Q-sort scores of a Negro group when the test is administered by a Caucasian as compared to when the test is administered by a Negro.

2. There is no significant difference between self-concept Q-sort scores of a Caucasian group when the test is administered by a Caucasian as compared to when the test is administered by a Negro.

3. There is no significant difference between scores of the Caucasian and Negro groups when the self-concept Q-sort is administered by a Caucasian tester.

4. There is no significant difference between scores of the Caucasian and Negro groups when the self-concept Q-sort is administered by a Negro tester.

The F ratio obtained, as reported in Table I, was not significant at the five percent level of confidence. Thus, the above four hypotheses were found to be tenable.

The analysis of variance technique also was used to investigate any differences between or within scores on the items used in the following hypotheses regarding the relationship between the racial identification of the test administrator and the skill performance on the standing broad jump.

5. There is no significant difference between standing broad jump scores of a Negro group when the test is administered by a Caucasian as compared to when the test is administered by a Negro.

6. There is no significant difference between standing broad jump scores of a Caucasian group when the test is administered by a Caucasian as compared to when the test is administered by a Negro.

7. There is no significant difference between scores of the Caucasian and Negro groups when the standing broad jump is administered by a Caucasian tester.

8. There is no significant difference between scores of the Caucasian and Negro groups when the standing broad jump is administered by a Negro tester.

The F ratio obtained, as reported in Table II, was not significant at the five percent level of confidence. Therefore, the above four hypotheses were found to be tenable.

TABLE I  
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SCORES REGARDING THE RELATIONSHIP  
BETWEEN THE RACIAL IDENTIFICATION OF THE TEST  
ADMINISTRATOR AND THE SELF-CONCEPT  
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F
Between Racial Groups	.0325	1	.0325	.5769
Between Testers	.0047	1	.0047	.0827
Interaction	.0556	1	.0556	.9862
Within Groups	2.4787	44	.0563	
Totals	2.5215	47		

TABLE II

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SCORES REGARDING THE RELATIONSHIP  
 BETWEEN THE RACIAL IDENTIFICATION OF THE TEST  
 ADMINISTRATOR AND THE STANDING  
 BROAD JUMP SCORES

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F
Between Groups	2,032.5570	1	2,032.5570	.0378
Between Testers	1.7240	1	1.7240	.0000
Interaction	2.4427	1	2.4427	.0000
Within Groups	3,346.9315	54	619,802.1290	
Totals	5,383.6552	57		

The statistical technique of analysis of variance was used to investigate any differences between or within scores on the items used in the following hypotheses regarding the relationship between the racial identification of the test administrator and the skill performance on the shuttle run.

9. There is no significant difference between shuttle run scores of a Negro group when the test is administered by a Caucasian as compared to when the test is administered by a Negro.

10. There is no significant difference between shuttle run scores of a Caucasian group when the test is administered by a Caucasian as compared to when the test is administered by a Negro.

11. There is no significant difference between scores of the Caucasian and Negro groups when the shuttle run is administered by a Caucasian tester.

12. There is no significant difference between scores of the Caucasian and Negro groups when the shuttle run is administered by a Negro tester.

The first F ratio obtained for the sum of squares between racial groups was significant at the five percent level of confidence. However, as reported in Table III, the difference was not influenced by the race of the teacher. The means of the Caucasian group were higher than the means of the Negro group. The resulting implications, although not pertinent to this particular study, lend support to the hypothesis that the Negro students have had fewer learning advantages than the Caucasian students. Thus, this is one theory formulated to account for the lower skill level of the Negro students.



TABLE III  
MEANS OF THE SHUTTLE RUN SCORES OF  
THE CAUCASIAN AND NEGRO GROUPS

Race of Group	Race of Tester	M
Caucasian	Caucasian	11.01
Caucasian	Negro	11.18
Negro	Caucasian	11.42
Negro	Negro	11.39

The second and third F ratios obtained, as reported in Table IV, were not significant at the five percent level of confidence. Thus, the above four hypotheses were found to be tenable.

The Pearson product moment method was used to determine the degree of relationship between the factors listed in each of the following hypotheses.

13. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept Q-sort scores and the standing broad jump scores of the Negro group when both tests are administered by a Negro tester.

14. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept Q-sort scores and the shuttle run scores of the Negro group when both tests are administered by a Negro tester.

15. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept Q-sort scores and the standing broad jump scores of the Negro group when both tests are administered by a Caucasian tester.

16. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept Q-sort scores and the shuttle run scores of the Negro group when tests are administered by a Caucasian tester.

17. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept Q-sort scores and the standing broad jump scores of the Caucasian group when both tests are administered by a Caucasian tester.

18. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept Q-sort scores and the shuttle run scores of the Caucasian group when both tests are administered by a Negro tester.

TABLE IV

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SCORES REGARDING THE RELATIONSHIP  
BETWEEN THE RACIAL IDENTIFICATION OF THE TEST  
ADMINISTRATOR AND THE SHUTTLE RUN SCORES

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F
Between Racial Groups	1.3375	1	1.3375	4.0752*
Between Testers	.1165	1	.1165	.3549
Interaction	.1548	1	.1548	.4716
Within Groups	17.7271	54	.3282	
Totals	19.3359	57		

\*Significant at the .05% level of confidence

19. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept Q-sort scores and the standing broad jump scores of the Caucasian group when both tests are administered by a Negro tester.

20. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept Q-sort scores and the shuttle run scores of the Caucasian group when both tests are administered by a Negro tester.

The significant level of confidence for "r" was determined by the use of the table in Edwards. (12:426) The coefficients of correlation for the above hypotheses can be found in Tables V and VI. Since no relationships were significant at the five percent level of confidence the hypotheses were accepted as tenable.

Fisher's "t" Test of Significance of Difference between coefficients of correlation was used to calculate the differences indicated in the following hypotheses.

21. There is no significant difference between the relationship of the self-concept scores and the standing broad jump scores of the Negro group when both tests are administered by a Negro teacher as compared to when both tests are administered by a Caucasian teacher.

22. There is no significant difference between the relationship of the self-concept scores and the shuttle run scores of the Negro group when both tests are administered by a Negro teacher as compared to when both tests are administered by a Caucasian teacher.

23. There is no significant difference between the relationship of the self-concept scores and the standing broad jump scores of the Caucasian group when both tests are administered by a Caucasian teacher as compared to when both tests are administered by a Negro teacher.

TABLE V  
SIGNIFICANCE OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE  
SELF-CONCEPT CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS  
AND SCORES ON THE STANDING BROAD JUMP

Race of Group	Race of Tester	r
Caucasian	Caucasian	.210
Caucasian	Negro	-.160
Negro	Caucasian	-.128
Negro	Negro	-.372



TABLE VI  
SIGNIFICANCE OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE  
SELF-CONCEPT CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS  
AND SCORES ON THE SHUTTLE RUN

Race of Group	Race of Tester	r
Caucasian	Caucasian	-.295
Caucasian	Negro	.268
Negro	Caucasian	-.058
Negro	Negro	.218

24. There is no significant difference between the relationship of the self-concept scores and the shuttle run scores of the Caucasian group when both tests are administered by a Caucasian teacher as compared to when both tests are administered by a Negro teacher.

The conversion of "r" scores to "z" scores was determined by the table in Edwards. (12:427) The "t" scores, as reported in Table VII, were not significant at the five percent level of confidence. Thus, the hypotheses were accepted as tenable.

The analysis of the data obtained indicates that no significant statistical differences were found in the following situations.

1. The fact that the subjects, in taking the self-concept tests, had to perceive the conceptions of the test administrators did not seem to influence, to any significant degree, the responses given.

2. Neither group of subjects differed significantly in their performance of the standing broad jump or the shuttle run with the Caucasian or Negro administrators.

3. The results obtained from both groups on the self-concept tests did not relate significantly to their skill performance. Thus, this may further indicate that the race of the teacher does not necessarily affect performance within a physical education class.

It may be assumed, from the statistical information gathered in this study, that the integration of schools need not have a marked effect on the performance of the student in relation to the race of the teacher.

TABLE VII  
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GROUPS  
OF THE SELF-CONCEPT AND SKILL PERFORMANCE  
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

Race of Group	Race of Tester	Skill	r	"t"
Caucasian	Caucasian	Shuttle Run	-.295	1.155
Caucasian	Negro	Shuttle Run	.268	
Negro	Caucasian	Shuttle Run	-.058	.008
Negro	Negro	Shuttle Run	.218	
Caucasian	Caucasian	Broad Jump	.210	.008
Caucasian	Negro	Broad Jump	-.160	
Negro	Caucasian	Broad Jump	-.128	.376
Negro	Negro	Broad Jump	-.372	

## CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the race identification of a teacher and the self-concept and skill performance of the students.

Subjects were twenty Caucasian college freshman women from The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, and fourteen Negro college freshman women from the North Carolina Agricultural and Technical State University. Test administrators were one Caucasian female (the author) and one Negro female, both graduate students in physical education at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro. Both testers administered the self-concept test, the standing broad jump, and the shuttle run to both groups of subjects. To eliminate any influence of practice on the test results, both the Negro and Caucasian groups were divided into two sub-groups. Thus, when the Caucasian tester was administering the tests to one half of the group, the Negro administrator was testing the second sub-group. During the next scheduled testing period, the test administrators exchanged groups.

The Q-sort technique was selected as the methodology used for determining self-concept. The self-concept test of seventy-five statements constructed by Rogers (30) and used by Doudlah (81) was administered. Correlation coefficients between the self-sort and the ideal-sort were determined by use of a nomograph.

The standing broad jump and the shuttle run were used as measures of skill performance. These tests were selected from the battery of physical fitness tests devised by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.

Null hypotheses were formulated regarding the relationships between groups and within groups on the variables measured. The statistical tool of analysis of variance was utilized for twelve of the hypotheses. The following results were obtained.

1. There is no significant difference between self-concept Q-sort scores of a Negro group when the test is administered by a Caucasian as compared to when the test is administered by a Negro.

2. There is no significant difference between self-concept Q-sort scores of a Caucasian group when the test is administered by a Caucasian as compared to when the test is administered by a Negro.

3. There is no significant difference between scores of the Caucasian and Negro groups when the self-concept Q-sort is administered by a Caucasian tester.

4. There is no significant difference between scores of the Caucasian and Negro groups when the self-concept Q-sort is administered by a Negro tester.

5. There is no significant difference between standing broad jump scores of a Negro group when the test is administered by a Caucasian as compared to when the test is administered by a Negro.

6. There is no significant difference between standing broad jump scores of a Caucasian group when the test is administered by a Caucasian as compared to when the test is administered by a Negro.



7. There is no significant difference between scores of the Caucasian and Negro groups when the standing broad jump is administered by a Caucasian tester.

8. There is no significant difference between scores of the Caucasian and Negro groups when the standing broad jump is administered by a Negro tester.

9. There is no significant difference between shuttle run scores of a Negro group when the test is administered by a Caucasian as compared to when the test is administered by a Negro.

10. There is no significant difference between shuttle run scores of a Caucasian group when the test is administered by a Caucasian as compared to when the test is administered by a Negro.

11. There is no significant difference between scores of the Caucasian and Negro groups when the shuttle run is administered by a Caucasian tester.

12. There is no significant difference between scores of the Caucasian and Negro groups when the shuttle run is administered by a Negro tester.

The Pearson product moment was used to compute the relationships between self-concept and skill performances. The following results were obtained.

1. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept Q-sort scores and the standing broad jump scores of the Negro group when both tests are administered by a Negro tester.

2. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept Q-sort scores and the shuttle run scores of the Negro group when both tests are administered by a Negro tester.

3. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept Q-sort scores and the standing broad jump scores of the Negro group when both tests are administered by a Caucasian tester.

4. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept Q-sort scores and the shuttle run scores of the Negro group when tests are administered by a Caucasian tester.

5. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept Q-sort scores and the standing broad jump scores of the Caucasian group when both tests are administered by a Caucasian tester.

6. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept Q-sort scores and the shuttle run scores of the Caucasian group when both tests are administered by a Caucasian tester.

7. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept Q-sort scores and the standing broad jump scores of the Caucasian group when both tests are administered by a Negro tester.

8. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept Q-sort scores and the shuttle run scores of the Caucasian group when both tests are administered by a Negro tester.

Using the scores computed with the Pearson product moment, Fisher's "t" test was used to determine the significance of difference between the pertinent correlation coefficients. The following results were obtained:

1. There is no significant difference between the relationship of the self-concept scores and the standing broad jump scores of the Negro group when both tests are administered by a Negro teacher as compared to when both tests are administered by a Caucasian teacher.

2. There is no significant difference between the relationship of the self-concept scores and the shuttle run scores of the Negro group when both tests are administered by a Negro teacher as compared to when both tests are administered by a Caucasian teacher.

3. There is no significant difference between the relationship of the self-concept scores and the standing broad jump scores of the Caucasian group when both tests are administered by a Caucasian teacher as compared to when both tests are administered by a Negro teacher.

4. There is no significant difference between the relationship of the self-concept scores and the shuttle run scores of the Caucasian group when both tests are administered by a Caucasian teacher as compared to when both tests are administered by a Negro teacher.

The results of this study have indicated that in the experimental conditions described the racial identity of the instructor did not have any marked effect upon the student's self-concept and the level of skill performance tested.

The investigator feels that it would be beneficial to administer tests at the beginning of a school year in which the classes were integrated, and had teachers of different racial backgrounds. A re-test at the end of a semester might then give a more realistic indication of the actual effect the teacher has upon the students, if, indeed, an effect

exists. However, it should be noted that other variables such as personality, age, and previous social exposure could very well be intervening factors causing behavioral change, rather than the race of the teacher.

From the results of this study, it would appear that for university women the racial identification of the teacher is of little significance in affecting performance or in altering self-concept.

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## APPENDIX

TABLE VIII

SCHEDULE FOR THE ADMINISTRATION OF  
THE SELF-CONCEPT AND SKILL TESTS  
FOR THE CAUCASIAN GROUP

Sub-group	Date	Test	Tester
A	3/10/70	Self-concept	Negro
B	3/10/70	Self-concept	Caucasian
A	3/12/70	Self-concept	Caucasian
B	3/12/70	Self-concept	Negro
A	3/17/70	Skill tests	Negro
B	3/17/70	Skill tests	Caucasian
A	3/19/70	Skill tests	Caucasian
B	3/19/70	Skill tests	Negro

TABLE IX  
 SCHEDULE FOR THE ADMINISTRATION OF  
 THE SELF-CONCEPT AND SKILL TESTS  
 FOR THE NEGRO GROUP

Sub-group	Date	Test	Tester
A	4/15/70	Self-concept	Negro
B	4/15/70	Self-concept	Caucasian
A	4/17/70	Self-concept	Caucasian
B	4/17/70	Self-concept	Negro
A	4/22/70	Skill tests	Negro
B	4/22/70	Skill tests	Caucasian
A	4/24/70	Skill tests	Caucasian
B	4/24/70	Skill tests	Negro

## INSTRUCTIONS

## SELF-CONCEPT Q-SORT

The test you are about to take is called a self-concept test. It is given to help educators better understand how the students view themselves in today's society, and how they can best help you to meet your needs. The test will not be used to single out any individual, but rather to establish the feeling of the group. There are no right or wrong answers in this test.

Please check to see that you have the following items:

1. a packet of seventy-five statements
2. a strip of poster board numbered one through nine
3. two answer sheets: a white sheet entitled "self-sort" and a yellow sheet entitled "ideal-sort"
4. a pencil

Print the number assigned to you in the top right-hand corner of both answer sheets.

From the packet of seventy-five statements select the statements which are least like you as you see yourself at this exact moment in time. Place them in a pile on your left. Then select the statements which are most like you, and place them in a pile on your right. Statements which do not apply to either of those categories should be placed in a center pile.



Place the cardboard strip in front of you. The numbers one through nine indicate a column heading. The small numbers in parentheses under the main numeral indicate how many statements are to be placed in that column. Place only as many statements in each column as it is indicated.

From the pile on your left select the two statements which are least like you and place them in column one. Then select the next five statements least like you and place them in column two. Continue this process until column four is completed. Then, starting with column nine repeat the same procedure, choosing from the statements most like you. Continue this through column six. All remaining statements are to be placed in column five.

All seventy-five statements must be used. You may not use any statement more than once. All statements within a column will have the same value.

After you have sorted the statements, place the number of each statement in the appropriate columns on your white answer sheet. You will have then completed your self-sort.

You will then repeat the same procedure. The second time, however, I want you to arrange the statements from the point of view of how you think I would like you to be. You will record the numbers for the ideal-sort on the yellow answer sheet.

There is no time limit for this test.

Are there any questions?

## SELF-CONCEPT Q-SORT STATEMENTS

1. I express my emotions freely.
2. Most of my troubles are not my own fault.
3. I feel happy much of the time.
4. I feel secure within myself.
5. It's quite important for me to know how I seem to others.
6. I put on a false front.
7. I often feel that I want to give up trying to cope with the world.
8. I have confidence in myself.
9. I am kept going by hopes for the future.
10. I have courage--the willingness to keep trying.
11. I usually like people.
12. I am a strong, competent person.
13. I am full of life and good spirits.
14. I feel free and unhampered.
15. I can stand up for my rights if I need to.
16. My decisions are not my own. I feel controlled by others.
17. I am liked by most people who know me.
18. I am ashamed of myself.
19. I have some originality or inventiveness in me.
20. I don't remake myself to satisfy each person who is important to me.
21. I have initiative. I can get started on my own.
22. It takes everything I've got just to keep going.
23. If I can't have perfection, I don't want anything. Nothing in between will satisfy me.
24. I am shy.
25. Basically I like myself.
26. I am no one. I am not a person in my own right.
27. I am fearful, often dreading what may happen.
28. My energies and abilities are fully available to me.
29. I am intelligent.
30. I have a feeling I'm just not facing things.
31. I am different from others.
32. I forgive easily--don't hold grudges or try to "get even."
33. I tend to feel envy at other people's good fortune.
34. I have to protect myself with excuses, with rationalizing.
35. I am satisfied with myself.
36. I am worth being lived.
37. I shrink from facing a crisis or a real hard test of myself.
38. I understand myself.
39. I have a feeling of hopelessness.
40. I often feel resentful.
41. I feel helpless.
42. I am disorganized.

43. I am too much the result of past experiences to hope for much change.
44. I feel inferior.
45. I am a failure.
46. I am emotionally mature.
47. I am confused.
48. I am optimistic.
49. I am pretty sociable, and really enjoy being with people.
50. I get pleasure out of life.
51. I am critical of people.
52. I am superior to most other people.
53. I get upset when old and familiar things are changed.
54. I'm a pretty calm and relaxed person. Few things really bother me.
55. I generally am fortunate.
56. I am really self-centered--don't care much about other people.
57. It is pretty hard to really be myself.
58. I am usually an aloof, reserved person.
59. I do care for others and want them to be happy.
60. I am an angry, hostile person.
61. I live largely by other people's values and standards.
62. I really am disturbed--close to the breaking point.
63. I often feel guilty.
64. I trust my emotions.
65. I am kind and gentle.
66. I have warm emotional relationships with others.
67. I just have to drive myself to get things done.
68. I am a submissive person.
69. I feel able to make up my own mind and stick to it if I want to.
70. I am adaptable. A strange situation is not a crisis to me.
71. I just wish I could be someone else, and forget all about me.
72. I just can't tell anyone my real feelings.
73. I feel adequate.
74. I am a pretty stable person.
75. I am conscientious and honorable--can be depended upon.

TABLE X  
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN THE SELF-SORT AND  
THE IDEAL-SORT OF THE CAUCASIAN SUBJECTS

Subject Number	Caucasian Administrator	Negro Administrator
1	.932	.900
2		.921
3		
4	.210	.248
5	.370	.170
6		.620
7	.729	.501
8	.732	.649
9	.948	.592
10	.988	.875
11	.771	.718
12	.921	
13		.802
14	.778	.772
15		
16	.760	.850
17	.729	.580
18	.929	.968
19		.326
20		.784

TABLE XI  
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN THE SELF-SORT AND  
THE IDEAL-SORT OF THE NEGRO SUBJECTS

Subject number	Caucasian Administrator	Negro Administrator
21	.809	.940
22	.332	.630
23	.791	.882
24	.809	.630
25	.592	.543
26	.597	.610
27	.640	.974
28	.860	.060
29	.351	.706
30	.592	.700
31	.546	
32		.700
33	.228	.495
34	.834	.845



## INSTRUCTIONS

## STANDING BROAD JUMP

This afternoon I am going to test your skill ability in the shuttle run and the standing broad jump. Both tests have been designed by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.

The first test will be the standing broad jump. One girl will jump at a time. You will stand behind the starting line. You must take off from both feet simultaneously, jump as far forward as possible, and land on both feet. Try not to fall backward after the landing. You can jump farther by crouching before the jump and swinging your arms. You will have three trials. Only the best trial is recorded.

TABLE XII  
STANDING BROAD JUMP SCORES  
OF THE CAUCASIAN SUBJECTS

Subject Number	Caucasian Administrator	Negro Administrator
1	79	76
2	62	60
3	57	54
4		79
5	64	60
6	67	67
7		60
8		55
9	73	71
10	59	60
11	69	70
12	73	73
13	73	72
14	63	66
15	73	77
16	61	63
17	59	62
18	56	55
19	69	68
20	71	74

TABLE XIII  
STANDING BROAD JUMP SCORES  
OF THE NEGRO SUBJECTS

Subject Number	Caucasian Administrator	Negro Administrator
21	38	35
22	61	63
23	55	60
24	53	56
25	47	49
26	65	66
27	57	57
28		61
29	37	45
30	60	62
31	60	54
32	65	56
33		
34	49	54

## INSTRUCTIONS

## SHUTTLE RUN

One girl at a time will take the shuttle run test. Stand behind the starting line. On the signal "Go" you must run as fast as you can to the next line and pick up one eraser. You should return the eraser over the starting line where you place it on the floor. Do not throw it. You return for the second eraser and this time, you may run across the starting line as fast as you can without placing the eraser on the floor. Everyone will take the test once, and then everyone will take it a second time. Your best trial will be the score.

TABLE XIV  
SHUTTLE RUN SCORES OF THE CAUCASIAN SUBJECTS

Subject Number	Caucasian Administrator	Negro Administrator
1	10.6	11.0
2	10.7	11.0
3	11.7	11.5
4		10.5
5	11.4	10.5
6	10.1	11.1
7		11.5
8		11.5
9	11.6	11.5
10	10.5	11.0
11	10.7	11.7
12	10.7	11.0
13	10.1	10.8
14	12.5	11.5
15	10.9	11.7
16	11.2	11.1
17	11.5	12.0
18	11.5	11.5
19	11.0	10.9
20	10.5	10.5



TABLE XV  
SHUTTLE RUN SCORES OF THE NEGRO SUBJECTS

Subject Number	Caucasian Administrator	Negro Administrator
21	11.9	12.5
22	11.5	11.5
23	11.2	11.1
24	12.6	11.5
25	11.5	11.5
26	10.6	11.0
27	11.6	11.4
28		11.0
29	12.3	12.5
30	11.5	11.1
31	11.1	11.1
32	10.4	11.0
33		
34	10.9	10.5

### Self-Sort

[illegible]

Figure 1

Answer Sheet for Self-Sort

### Ideal-Sort

[illegible]

Figure 2

Answer Sheet for Ideal-Sort

#	S	I	D	D <sup>2</sup>	#	S	I	D	D <sup>2</sup>	#	S	I	D	D <sup>2</sup>
1					26					51				
2					27					52				
3					28					53				
4					29					54				
5					30					55				
6					31					56				
7					32					57				
8					33					58				
9					34					59				
10					35					60				
11					36					61				
12					37					62				
13					38					63				
14					39					64				
15					40					65				
16					41					66				
17					42					67				
18					43					68				
19					44					69				
20					45					70				
21					46					71				
22					47					72				
23					48					73				
24					49					74				
25					50					75				

Figure 3

Scoring Sheet for Self-Concept Q-Sort



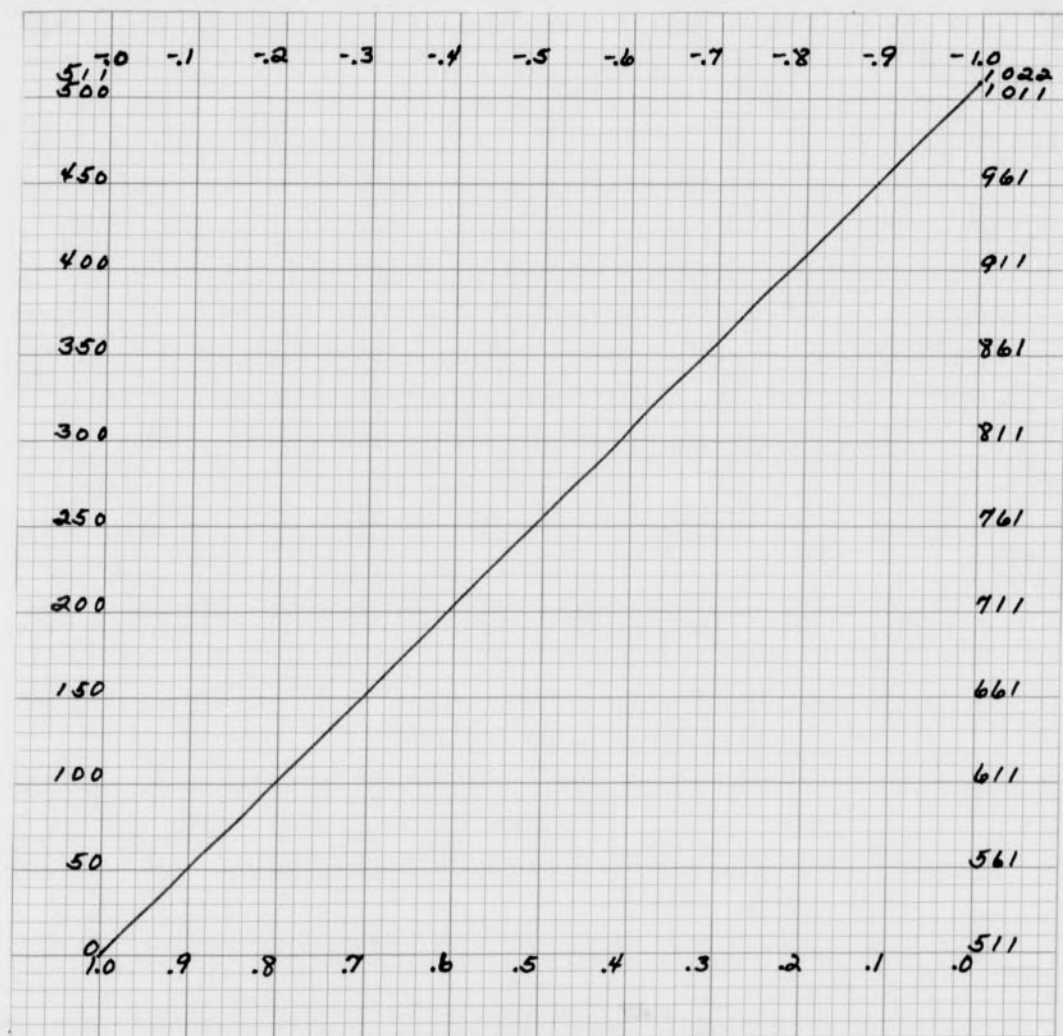


Figure 5

Nomograph